

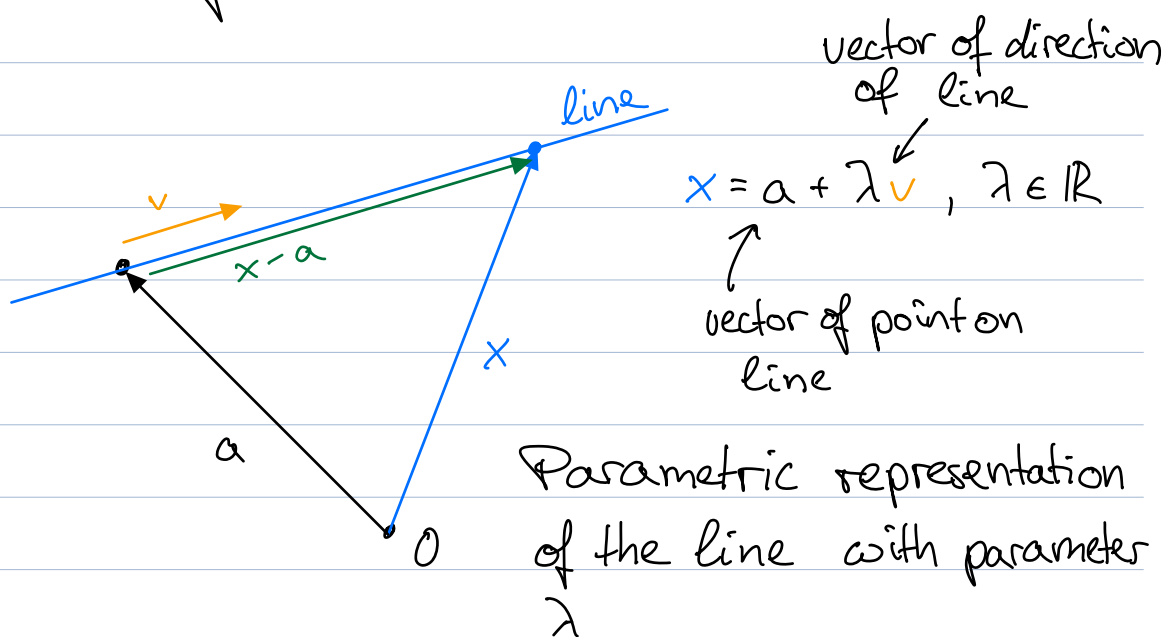
Prof. Sören Petrat, Dr. Stephan Juricke (based on lecture notes by Marcel Oliver)

Jacobs University, Fall 2022

5. Vectors & vector spaces

Topic 5.B: lines, planes and vector spaces

Equation of line



Ex.: Find the equation of the line through a and b :

Take a as reference point

Take direction vector $v = b - a$ (amplitude of vector does not matter, as long as $v \neq \vec{0}$)

$$\Rightarrow x = a + \lambda(b - a)$$

This is not a unique line representation.

Other choices are possible, e.g. switch b and a . We just need some point on the line and some vector in the direction of the line.

Note: Take the vectors a & b of points on the line, the vector v in the direction of the line.

x is on the line if

$$x - a \parallel v$$

↑ parallel to

$$\Leftrightarrow (x - a) \parallel (a - b)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x - a) \times (a - b) = 0$$

↑
cross product

(cross product = 0 if vectors are parallel, and max. if vectors are perpendicular)

Calculus and Elements of linear Algebra I

Session 21

Prof. Sören Petrat, Dr. Stephan Juricke (based on lecture notes by Marcel Oliver)

Jacobs University, Fall 2022

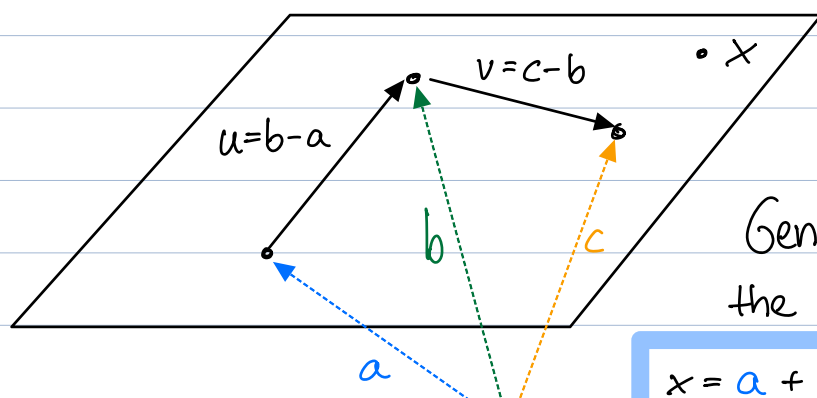
5. Vectors & vector spaces

Topic 5.B: lines, planes and vector spaces

Equations of planes

Parametric equation of the plane

Any set of two (independent, i.e. in this case non-parallel) linear equations in three dimensions defines a plane.



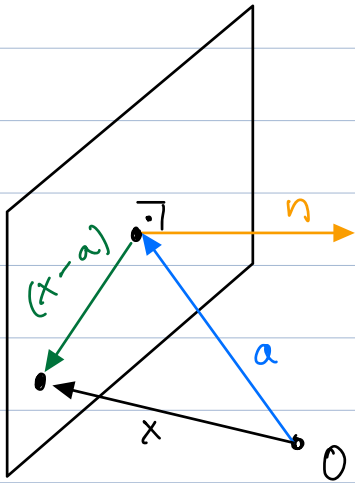
General point on the plane:

$$x = a + \lambda u + \mu v, \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$$



Normal equation of a plane

Normal vector to a plane is a vector pointing away from the plane in a right angle.



For normal vector

$(x-a) \perp n$ for any x on plane and some a on plane

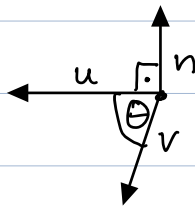
$$\Leftrightarrow (x-a) \cdot n = 0$$

Conversion of equations from one form to the other

1) From parametric representation to normal representation

We have $x = a + \lambda u + \mu v$

Set $n = u \times v$



so we get

$$(x-a) \cdot n = 0$$

2) From a general plane equation to normal representation

An equation of a plane has the general form
(as extension of equation of a line)

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 x_3 = \beta = \alpha \cdot x \quad \odot$$

with some fixed coefficients $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ given
by the vector $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$

and the fixed scalar $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$, s.t. all
vectors $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$ fulfilling the

equation are pointing to points on the plane.


We take $n = \alpha = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix}$ and pick a point

a s.t. $\beta = n \cdot a$, e.g. $a = \beta \frac{n}{|n|^2}$

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot n = \beta \frac{n}{|n|^2} \cdot n = \beta \frac{n \cdot n}{|n|^2} = \beta \frac{|n|^2}{|n|^2} = \beta$$

We can now show that $n \perp (x-a)$, i.e.

$n \cdot (x-a) = 0$ for any x that follows

the equation  :

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 - a_1 \\ x_2 - a_2 \\ x_3 - a_3 \end{pmatrix} = \alpha_1(x_1 - a_1) + \alpha_2(x_2 - a_2) + \alpha_3(x_3 - a_3)$$

$$= \underbrace{\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 x_3}_{= \beta \text{ since } x \text{ is on plane}} - \underbrace{(\alpha_1 a_1 + \alpha_2 a_2 + \alpha_3 a_3)}_{= \beta \text{ by construction of } a}$$

$$= \beta - \beta = 0 \quad \text{so} \quad n \cdot (x-a) = 0$$

We call $n \cdot (x-a) = 0$ or $n \cdot x = \beta$ with corresponding β and a also the **point-normal form** of the plane.

Ex.: $x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 = 5$

\Rightarrow normal form $n \cdot x = 5$ with

$$n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Prof. Sören Petrat, Dr. Stephan Juricke (based on lecture notes by Marcel Oliver)

Jacobs University, Fall 2022

5. Vectors & vector spaces

Topic 5.B: lines, planes and vector spaces

Vector spaces

A vector space is an abstract set of vectors that follows certain rules.

V is a vector space over \mathbb{R} (or \mathbb{C}) if

(i) V is closed under commutative and associative addition, i.e.:

$$+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{with } a + b = b + a \in V \\ (a + b) + c = a + (b + c) \in V \end{array} \right\} \forall a, b, c \in V$$

(addition of vectors from V keeps them in V)

(ii) V is closed under distributive and associative scalar multiplication, i.e.:

$$\cdot : \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$$

(or \mathbb{C})

with

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \lambda \cdot (a+b) &= \lambda a + \lambda b \in V \\ (\lambda + \mu) \cdot a &= \lambda a + \mu a \in V \\ \lambda \cdot (\mu \cdot a) &= (\lambda \cdot \mu) \cdot a \in V \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \forall a, b \in V \\ \forall \mu, \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \\ \text{(or } \mathbb{C}) \end{array}$$

(multiplication of vectors from V with scalars from \mathbb{R} (or \mathbb{C} , if vector space is over \mathbb{C}) keeps them in V)

(iii) $\exists 0 \in V : a + 0 = a \quad \forall a \in V$

(neutral element of addition)

(iv) $1 \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in V$

($1 \in \mathbb{R}$ (and $\in \mathbb{C}$) is neutral scalar of scalar multiplication)

Notes:

- 0 is unique: Assume we have two different 0 , 0 and 0

$$0 + 0 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = 0$$

$$= 0 + 0 = 0 \quad \text{are the same}$$

⚡

• For every $a \in V$ there is $-a := (-1) \cdot a$

$$\Rightarrow a - a = 0$$

Indeed: $a - a = \underbrace{(1 - 1)}_{=0} \cdot a = 0 \cdot a = 0$

Examples:

• $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$

• $V = \mathbb{C}^n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$

• $V = \{ p : p \text{ polynomials of degree } \leq n \}$

Non-example:

• $V = \{ p : p \text{ polynomials of degree } = n \}$

(has no neutral element of addition)

Calculus and Elements of linear Algebra I

Session 21

Prof. Sören Petrat, Dr. Stephan Juricke (based on lecture notes by Marcel Oliver)

Jacobs University, Fall 2022

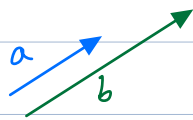
5. Vectors & vector spaces

Topic 5.B: lines, planes and vector spaces

Def.: The vectors in $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ are linearly independent if

$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_m v_m = 0$ implies
linear combination of $v_i, i=1, \dots, m$

$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_m = 0$!

 linearly dependent
(a is multiple of b)

α / b linearly independent

Def.: The set $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ is called a basis of V if

(i) For every $x \in V$ there are $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $x = \alpha_1 b_1 + \dots + \alpha_n b_n$

(ii) This representation is unique.

If \mathcal{B} is a basis of V , the vector $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called the coordinate vector of x (given the basis \mathcal{B}).

We can also write $x = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i b_i$ or simply $= \sum_i \alpha_i b_i$

if the upper limit is obvious from context.

Condition (i) of a basis can be written as

$$\forall x \in V \exists \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \text{ s.t. } x = \sum_i \alpha_i b_i$$

or:

$$U = \text{span} \{ b_1, \dots, b_n \}$$

↑
set of all linear combinations
of the indicated vectors

Theorem: \mathcal{B} is a basis \Rightarrow all vectors in \mathcal{B} are linearly independent

Fact: If V has basis \mathcal{B} that is finite (i.e. finite number of vectors) then every other basis has the same number of vectors n .

We say that the dimension of V is n or $\dim V = n$